

**Figure 4** Therapeutic approaches for ATL. Current therapeutic strategies for acute or lymphoma-type ATL and chronic or smoldering ATL are listed.

immunosuppressive function of ATL cells, as they appear to arise from regulatory T cells (Karube *et al.*, 2004) and can produce immunosuppressive cytokines (Mori *et al.*, 1996). As noted above, ATL immunodeficiency leads to complications from various opportunistic fungal, viral, protozoal and bacterial infections, which can worsen the prognosis.

Allogeneic stem cell transplantation has been shown to be effective in ATL patients (Utsunomiya *et al.*, 2001). Patients treated with allogeneic stem cell transplantation with reduced-intensity conditioning had overall survival at 3 years of 36% (Tanosaki *et al.*, 2008). These studies showed that 30–40% of ATL patients, who achieve remission and have suitable donors, became long-term survivors with either conventional allogeneic stem cell transplantation (SCT) or reduced-intensity conditioning (Okamura *et al.*, 2007). It should be noted that provirus load remarkably decreased in many patients who received SCT. The findings suggest that cell-mediated immunity to HTLV-1 was augmented in these patients, which might account for the efficacy of this therapy.

The presence of graft-versus-host disease is a good prognostic factor for ATL patients (Okamura *et al.*, 2007), indicating that immune attack by donor lymphocytes is critical for the efficacy of treatment. ATL cells express Fas antigen highly are susceptible to Fas-mediated signaling (Tamiya *et al.*, 1998; Yasunaga *et al.*, 2004). CTLs can attack ATL cells in the host, resulting in good therapeutic responses. In allogeneic stem cell transplantation treated individuals, CTLs to Tax peptides were activated in the recipients; and provirus load became profoundly suppressed, indicating the role of anti-HTLV-1 immune responses in the efficacious outcome (Harashima *et al.*, 2004). Nevertheless, it remains unknown whether CTLs to Tax are required for the efficacy of stem cell transplantation therapy.

Of therapeutic implication, it has been noted that most ATL leukemic cells express CCR4 molecules on their surfaces (Yoshie *et al.*, 2002). As  $T_{reg}$  cells express CCR4, this finding is consistent with one of the origins of ATL cells as  $T_{reg}$  cells. KW-0761, a defucosylated humanized anti-CCR4 antibody, has been shown to be

effective in ATL patients (Yamamoto *et al.*, 2010). Among 15 patients treated with KW-0761, 5 patients achieved positive objective responses: 2 complete and 3 partial responses. Potentially, the KW-0761 antibody could be beneficial when combined with rituximab treatment.

It has been reported that the mean survival time of patients with indolent subtypes, chronic and smoldering ATL was 4.1 years. This finding shows that the prognosis of indolent ATL is poorer than previously thought (Takasaki *et al.*, 2010). Therapy using interferon  $\alpha$  combined with zidovudine (Figure 4) has been reported to be highly effective to these indolent ATL (Bazarbachi *et al.*, 2010) suggesting that such therapy could be beneficial for this category of patients.

Experiments using animal models have provided important information on therapeutic strategies for ATL patients. For example, monoclonal antibodies to CD25 (Phillips *et al.*, 2000), CD2 (Zhang *et al.*, 2003b), CD52 (Zhang *et al.*, 2003a) and CCR4 (Ishii *et al.*, 2010) have been shown to be effective to ATL cells within *in vivo* model. In addition, it has been reported that a proteasome inhibitor, bortezomib, suppresses tumor formation of ATL cells *in vivo* (Tan and Waldmann, 2002; Mitra-Kaushik *et al.*, 2004; Satou *et al.*, 2004). NF- $\kappa$ B inhibitors also effectively induce apoptosis of ATL cells as NF- $\kappa$ B is highly activated in ATL cells (Dewan *et al.*, 2003; Watanabe *et al.*, 2005). These findings suggest the potential efficacy of these compounds and antibodies although they remain to be verified in clinical studies.

## Concluding remarks

Recent developments suggest that cancers, whether solid tumors (for example, breast and lung) or hematological malignancies (for example, leukemia), are comprised of two categories of cells: those with high- and those with limited-proliferative potential. Cells in the former category are termed cancer stem cells. Cancer stem cells share several properties with adult stem cells, particularly the abilities to self-renew and differentiate into multiple cell types. Cancer stem cells are found in a given cancer as a small sub-population; and cancer stem cells are reasoned to be the moieties, which cause disease relapse and metastasis. They, unlike the bulk of tumor cells, are postulated to be the only cells capable of giving rise to new tumors. Currently, an outstanding question in HTLV research is whether ATL originates from the transformation of a differentiated CD4+ T cells or from virus infection and transformation of a hematopoietic precursor cell (Banerjee *et al.*, 2008, 2010). Many attempts to transform human CD4+ T cells with Tax have failed; and it remains to be seen whether hematopoietic precursor cells or human stem cells can be transformed by Tax. Success in the latter attempts would point to factors that are expressed in undifferentiated, rather than differentiated, cells that may be critical to ATL leukemogenesis. Certainly, we expect

these answers to be forthcoming in the next 30 years of HTLV-1 research.

### Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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研究成果の刊行に関する一覧表

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# Genomewide Association Study of an AIDS-Nonprogression Cohort Emphasizes the Role Played by *HLA* Genes (ANRS Genomewide Association Study 02)

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To elucidate the genetic factors predisposing to AIDS progression, we analyzed a unique cohort of 275 human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) type 1-seropositive nonprogressor patients in relation to a control group of 1352 seronegative individuals in a genomewide association study (GWAS). The strongest association was obtained for *HCP5* rs2395029 ( $P = 6.79 \times 10^{-10}$ ; odds ratio, 3.47) and was possibly linked to an effect of sex. Interestingly, this single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) was in high linkage disequilibrium with *HLA-B*, *MICB*, *TNF*, and several other *HLA* locus SNPs and haplotypes. A meta-analysis of our genomic data combined with data from the previously conducted Euro-CHAVI (Center for HIV/AIDS Vaccine Immunology) GWAS confirmed the *HCP5* signal ( $P = 3.02 \times 10^{-19}$ ) and identified several new associations, all of them involving *HLA* genes: *MICB*, *TNF*, *RDBP*, *BATI-5*, *PSORS1C1*, and *HLA-C*. Finally, stratification by *HCP5* rs2395029 genotypes emphasized an independent role for *ZNRD1*, also in the *HLA* locus, and this finding was confirmed by experimental data. The present study, the first GWAS of HIV-1 nonprogressors, underscores the potential for some *HLA* genes to control disease progression soon after infection.

After 25 years of intensive research, there is still no definitive cure or vaccine for AIDS, and innovative strategies to fight HIV-1 infection are needed. Nowadays, ge-

notyping by high-density arrays scanning the whole genome allows discovery of unsuspected genetic risk factors that influence the pathogenesis of disease [1]. This systematic genetic approach should reveal new leads for strategies targeting AIDS, given that associations based on a candidate gene approach accounted for no more than 10% of the genetic risk factors influencing disease progression [2]. Recently, a genomewide association study (GWAS) based on a European multicenter seroconverter HIV-1 cohort, the Euro-CHAVI (Center for HIV/AIDS Vaccine Immunology) cohort, identified 2 alleles in *HCP5* and *HLA-C* that explained nearly 15% of the variation in the viral load set point [3]. Although genomic studies of AIDS usually rely on seroconverter patients who display all stages of disease, our rationale was that the extreme nonprogression phenotype of the

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**Table 1. Fifty best results obtained for the comparison between nonprogressors and control subjects.**

The table is available in its entirety in the online edition of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.

GRIV (Genomics of Resistance to Immunodeficiency Virus) cohort could bring even more contrast to the attempt to identify genetic effects. Previous gene-candidate analyses have shown the power of this unique design, notably for the *HLA* and *CCR5* genes [4, 5].

## METHODS

**The GRIV cohort.** The GRIV cohort was established in France in 1995 to generate a large collection of DNA for genetic studies to identify host genes associated with nonprogression to AIDS [4, 6]. Only white people of European descent living in France were eligible for enrollment to reduce confounding by population substructure. These criteria limit the influence of ethnic and environmental factors (all subjects live in a similar environment and are infected by B strains) and emphasize the genetic makeup of each individual in determining the various patterns of progression. Nonprogressors were included on the basis of the main clinical outcomes, CD4 T cell count and time to disease progression; inclusion criteria were asymptomatic HIV-1 infection for >8 years, no receipt of treatment, and a CD4 T cell count consistently remaining >500 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>. Viral load was not part of the GRIV inclusion criteria; however, the values at inclusion were obtained and used to assess potential correlations with genotypes. DNA was obtained from fresh peripheral blood mononuclear cells or from Epstein-Barr virus-transformed cell lines. The nonprogressors group ( $n = 275$ ) was composed of 201 men and 74 women whose ages at inclusion ranged from 19 to 62 years (median, 35 years). At inclusion, the median CD4 T cell count was 706 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> among the nonprogressors (minimum and maximum values, 501 and 2298 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>). All patients provided written informed consent before enrollment in the GRIV genetic association study.

**The seropositive control population.** To determine whether positive signals corresponded either to an association with nonprogression or to an association with HIV-1 infection, we needed a group of seropositive control subjects who were not nonprogressors. For that, we used 86 white French subjects who qualified as rapid progressors to AIDS (i.e., a CD4 T cell count decreasing to <300 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> within 3 years of seroconversion). This control group was composed of 74 men and 12 women aged from 21 to 55 years (median, 32 years). The median CD4 T cell count of this seropositive control population was 230 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> (minimum and maximum values, 20 and 297 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>). Viral loads were not available.

**The SU.VI.MAX control group.** The SU.VI.MAX (Supplémentation en Vitamines et Minéraux Antioxydants) study was a

randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled and primary-prevention trial designed to test the efficacy of daily supplements of antioxidant vitamins and minerals at nutrition-level doses in reducing the frequency of several major health problems in industrialized countries, especially the main causes of premature death, cancers and cardiovascular diseases. This cohort study was started in 1994 in France and was composed of 12,735 subjects [7]. The control group genotyped in the present study comprised 1352 representative SU.VI.MAX participants, all white persons living in France who were HIV-1 seronegative. This control cohort was composed of 525 men and 827 women, with a mean age of 53.1 and 48.5 years, respectively.

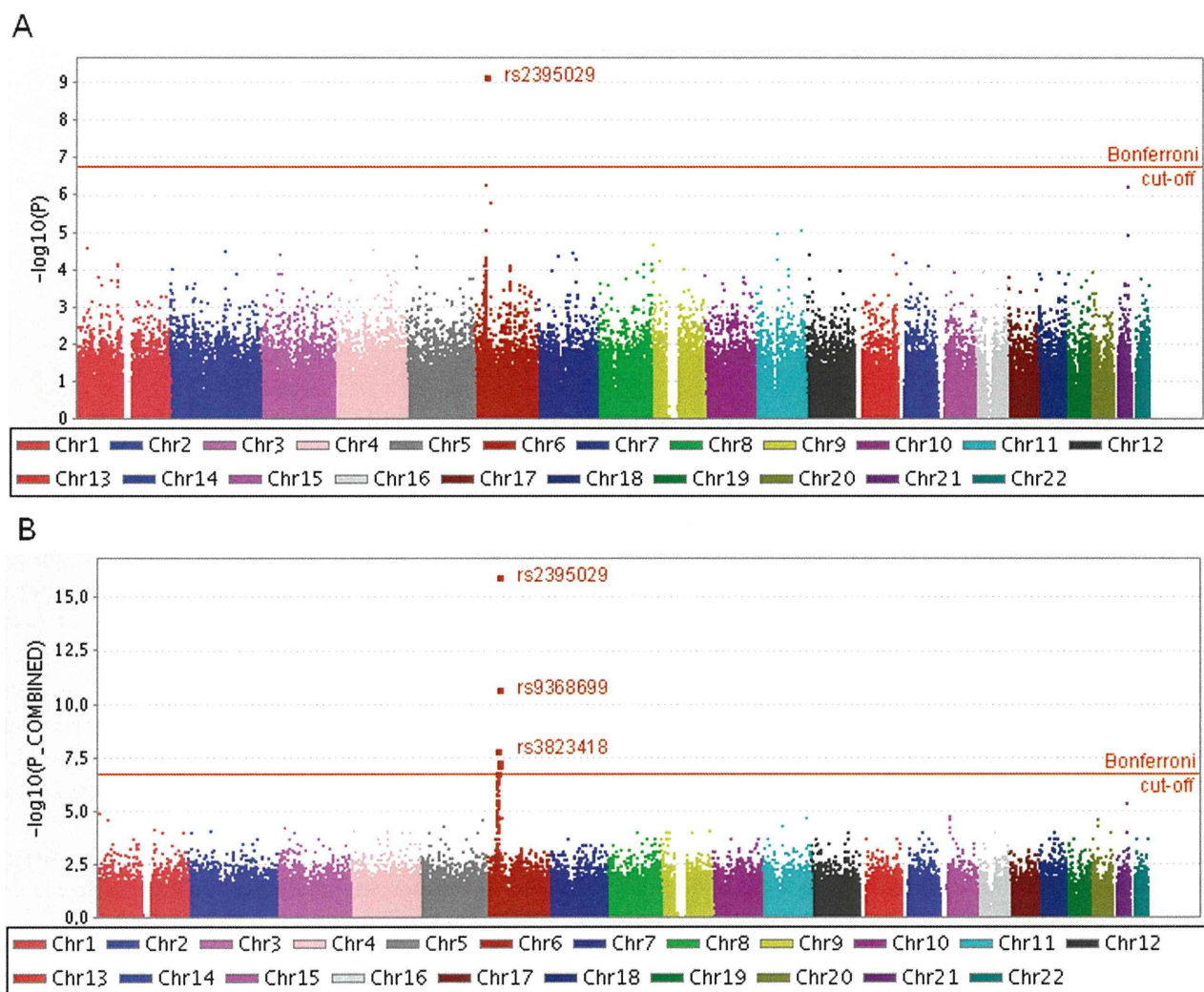
**Genotyping method.** Genotyping was performed for the GRIV cohort and the control groups by means of Infinium II HumanHap300 BeadChips (Illumina). The genomic DNA (750 ng) was whole-genome amplified, fragmented, denatured, and hybridized on prepared HumanHap300 BeadChips for a minimum of 16 h at 48°C. Nonspecifically hybridized fragments were removed by washing, and the remaining specifically hybridized DNA was fluorescently labeled by a single base-extension reaction and was detected using a BeadArray scanner (Illumina). Normalized bead-intensity data obtained for each sample were loaded into BeadStudio software (version 3.1; Illumina), which converted the fluorescence intensities into single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) genotypes.

**Quality control.** Using the BeadStudio software, we analyzed the crude genotyping data, and SNPs were filtered according to the following parameters. First, samples with a call rate (percentage of SNPs genotyped by sample) <95% in the Illumina clusters were deleted. Second, the SNPs having a call frequency (percentage of samples genotyped by SNP) <99% were reclustered. Third, after reclustering, samples with a call rate <97% were deleted. The clustering step can create SNP genotyping errors, which can be prevented by following the Illumina quality-control procedure (see [http://www.illumina.com/downloads/GTDataAnalysis\\_TechNote.pdf](http://www.illumina.com/downloads/GTDataAnalysis_TechNote.pdf)). This method evaluates the quality of the newly created clusters according to several criteria, which can be manually checked and corrected as necessary. By this Illumina procedure, 1300 SNPs were excluded. Finally, after all the quality-control steps, the 15,731 SNPs with a call frequency <98% (>2% of missing data) were excluded. This quality-control procedure ensures reliable genotyping data with few missing data.

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium analysis was performed for each SNP in each group using an exact statistical test [8] implemented in PLINK software (available at: <http://pngu.mgh.harvard.edu/~purcell/plink/>) [9]. Deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in a group of patients suggests that the

The figure is available in its entirety in the online edition of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.

**Figure 1.** Quantile-quantile plot for expected (red) vs. observed (black) *P* values from the comparison of nonprogressors with control subjects.



**Figure 2.** Distribution along the human autosomes of  $-\log_{10}(P)$  values obtained for the comparison of nonprogressors with control subjects (A) and for the meta-analysis of the GRIV and Euro-CHAVI studies (B). For the latter plot, we used the classical Fisher method, which allows combining  $P$  values obtained in 2 independent studies. The red line marks the Bonferroni threshold. Chr, chromosome.

SNP has a biological effect, while deviation in the control group or in all groups suggests a systematic error in genotyping. The 1475 SNPs that were not in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in the control group ( $P < 1.0 \times 10^{-3}$ ) were rejected in this way.

A total of 235 SNPs with a low minor allelic frequency ( $<1\%$ ) in the global population were also filtered.

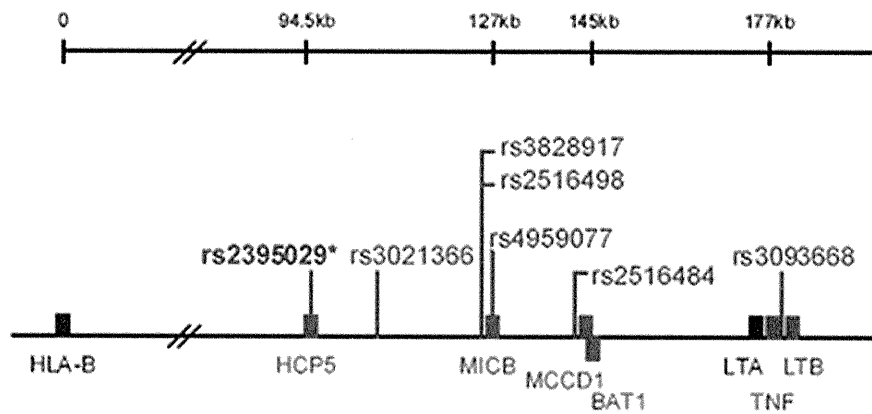
**Linkage disequilibrium.** For each SNP exhibiting a significant association, we looked for the other SNPs in linkage disequilibrium ( $r^2 \geq 0.8$ ) in the HapMap population of Western European ancestry (CEU, HapMap data Release 21a/phase II January 2007, on NCBI B35 assembly, dbSNP125; available at: <http://www.hapmap.org>) to identify the genes possibly involved with the associations. A SNP was assigned to a gene if it was located in the gene or in the 2-kb flanking regions (potential regulatory sequence); otherwise, it was considered intergenic.

**Statistical analysis.** For each SNP, we performed a standard case-control analysis using Fisher's exact test (with PLINK

software) to compare allelic distributions between the nonprogression group and the control group. To take into account the multiple comparisons, we computed the Bonferroni corrections. For all the SNPs meeting the statistical threshold (table 1), the quality of genotyping was individually rechecked with the BeadStudio software. We also checked that the allelic frequencies in the seropositive control population were similar to those in the seronegative SU.VI.MAX control population for those

**Table 2. Comparative analysis of the single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) found to be highly significant by the GRIV genomewide association study (GWAS) and at least 1 other GWAS.**

The table is available in its entirety in the online edition of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.



**Figure 3.** Complexity of the *HCP5* association. Shown is a genetic map of the HLA region. Table 3 lists single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and haplotypes of several genes in strong linkage disequilibrium with the *HCP5* rs2395029 SNP, which is marked by an asterisk in this figure.

SNPs of interest, confirming that the observed associations were indeed linked to nonprogression.

**Meta-analysis of the GRIV and Euro-CHAVI studies.** A total of 286,529 SNPs were found to be in common between the GRIV GWAS and the previous GWAS of AIDS, the Euro-CHAVI study [3]. The genotypes obtained by the Euro-CHAVI study were not directly available, but the *P* values obtained for each SNP for the viral load end point could be obtained from the supporting online material for Fellay et al. [3] (available at: <http://www.sciencemag.org/cgi/content/full/1143767/DC1>). The *P* values obtained for each SNP in our study and in the

Euro-CHAVI study were combined to provide a single probability value using the classical Fisher method [10]. We could not adjust the combined *P* values for opposite allelic effects (i.e., assign *P* = 1 if the odds ratios went in opposite directions), because the detailed allelic information for the Euro-CHAVI study was not available. We could compute this meta-analysis only for the Euro-CHAVI viral load end point data, because the *P* values for the progression to AIDS end point were not available.

**Identification of population stratification.** To correct for possible population stratification at the intercontinental level,

**Table 3. Single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and haplotypes of several genes in strong linkage disequilibrium ( $r^2 \geq 0.8$  for HapMap data on white individuals) with the *HCP5* rs2395029 SNP (see figure 3).**

Gene	Allele	Location	$r^2$
<i>HCP5</i>	rs2395029	Exon (Val112Gly)	...
<i>HLA-B</i>	HLA-B*5701	...	1.00
<i>MICB</i>	rs2516498	5'LR	0.83
	rs3828917	5'LR	1.00
	rs4959077	Intron	1.00
	rs2534654, rs2246626 (G-C)	Intron/3'LR	1.00
	rs3828917, rs1051788 (T-G)	5'LR/exon (Asp136Asn)	1.00
<i>TNF</i>	rs3093668	3'LR	0.83
	rs3093661	Intron	0.83
	rs3093661, rs4645843 (A-C)	Intron/exon (Pro84Leu)	0.83
	rs1799964, rs1800630, rs1800750 (C-C-G)	5'LR/5'LR/5'LR	0.83
<i>MCCD1</i>	rs2516484	5'LR	0.83
<i>BAT1</i>	rs2516484	3'LR	0.83
<i>LTB</i>	rs3093668	3'LR	0.83
	rs3093559, rs3093553 (C-G)	3'LR/intron	0.83
	rs3093726, rs3093559 (C-G)	3'LR/3'LR	0.83

**NOTE.** The *HCP5* rs2395029 SNP is marked by an asterisk in figure 3. To compute the linkage disequilibrium between the haplotypes and the *HCP5* SNP, we limited ourselves to haplotypes composed of 2 or 3 SNPs derived from the known HapMap SNPs in this HLA region. The list is only a small sample of the numerous haplotypes with  $r^2 \geq 0.8$  identified. 5'LR corresponds to the 5' part within 2 kb of the gene; 3'LR corresponds to the 3' part within 0.5 kb of the gene.

**Table 4. Influence of sex on the *HCP5* and *C6orf48* associations with nonprogression.**

The table is available in its entirety in the online edition of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.

case and control genotypes were analyzed using STRUCTURE software (version 2.2) [11]. We selected a set of 328 SNPs that were informative for ancestral origin ( $F$  statistics fixation index  $> 0.2$ ) on the basis of the Perlegen data set and that were separated by 5 Mb to avoid linkage disequilibrium. We also included genotypes obtained from unrelated individuals representing the 3 populations studied by the HapMap project, to better separate the nonprogressor and control individuals according to their continental origin. All case and control subjects fell within the range of the white individuals from HapMap.

To avoid spurious associations resulting from possible population stratification or genotyping errors, a quantile-quantile plot was produced by plotting the ranked values of the test statistics against the approximated expected order statistic (figure 1). We also computed the genomic inflation factor  $\lambda$  [12]. The result ( $\lambda = 1.064$ ), along with the quantile-quantile plot, suggested little overall effect of stratification.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Using the Illumina HumanHap300 BeadChips, we performed a GWAS by comparing our nonprogression group ( $n = 275$ ) with a control group ( $n = 1352$ ) from the SU.VI.MAX cohort. After the different quality-control tests (see Methods), a total of 291,119 autosomal SNPs were tested for association with nonprogression. For each SNP, Fisher's exact test was performed

**Table 6. Fifty best combined  $P$  values obtained by the meta-analysis of the GRIV and Euro-CHAVI studies.**

The table is available in its entirety in the online edition of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.

comparing the allelic frequencies in the case group versus those in the control group, and the resulting  $P$  values were adjusted by the Bonferroni correction. Figure 2A depicts the distribution of the  $P$  values along the chromosomes, and table 1 presents the most significant signals.

The sole association remaining after the Bonferroni adjustments was the *HCP5* rs2395029-G allele ( $P = 6.79 \times 10^{-10}$ ; odds ratio, 3.47 [95% confidence interval, 2.39–5.04]) (table 1) located on chromosome 6 (figure 2A). This *HCP5* SNP was previously identified by Fellay et al. [3], who hypothesized that, because *HCP5* encodes a human endogenous retrovirus with sequence homology to HIV-1 *pol* [13], it may act as antisense RNA interfering with HIV-1 replication. This SNP is also in absolute linkage disequilibrium with the HLA-B\*5701 allele [14], which has been associated with the control of HIV-1 replication and disease progression [15]. Interestingly, this SNP was also shown to be a major signal in a GWAS of psoriasis and psoriatic arthritis [16] (table 2). Figure 3 and table 3 show that this SNP could be tracking through linkage disequilibrium causal alleles in other major genes of the HLA locus, including *MICB*, *BAT1*, *LTB*, and *TNF*. *MICB* is a ligand for CD8 T cells and natural killer cells, which are key players in the anti-HIV-1 immune response. *BAT1* is an essential component for splicing and RNA export [17] but is also known as a negative regulator of the inflammatory cytokines tumor necrosis factor (TNF), interleukin (IL)-1, and IL-6 [18]. Lymphotoxin  $\beta$  (*LTB*) is an inflammatory

**Table 5. Best  $P$  values obtained by the meta-analysis of the GRIV and Euro-CHAVI studies.**

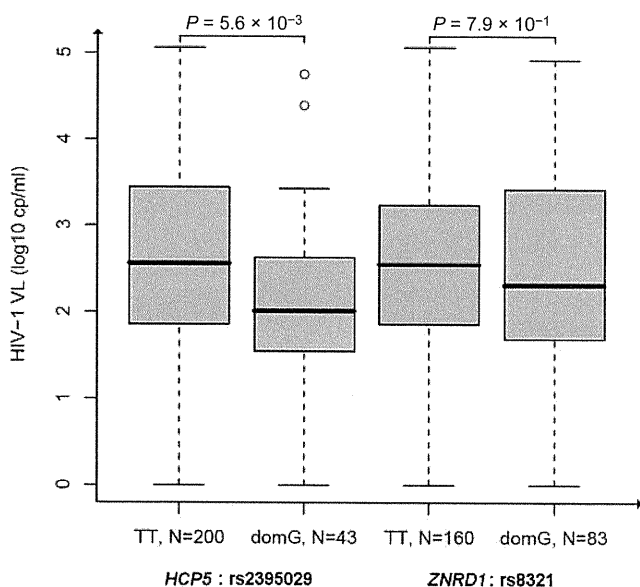
SNP	Chr	Chr position	A1	A2	Allelic frequency (A1), %			Fisher $P_{NP-CTR}$	Fisher $P_{Euro-CHAVI}$	$P_{combined}$	Gene(s)/LD
					NP	CTR	SCP				
rs2395029	6	31539759	G	T	8.9	2.7	2.3	$6.79 \times 10^{-10}$	$9.36 \times 10^{-12}$	$3.02 \times 10^{-19}$	<i>HCP5</i> , intergenic, <i>MICB</i> , <i>MCCD1</i> , <i>BAT1</i> , <i>LTB</i> , <i>TNF</i>
rs9368699	6	31910520	C	T	8.2	3.2	3.5	$5.27 \times 10^{-07}$	$1.20 \times 10^{-06}$	$1.84 \times 10^{-11}$	<i>C6orf48</i> , <i>RDBP</i> , <i>TNXB</i> , <i>BAT2</i> , <i>BAT3</i> , <i>LY6G5C</i> , <i>BAT5</i>
rs3823418	6	31208921	A	G	24.2	16.8	16.9	$5.72 \times 10^{-05}$	$1.11 \times 10^{-05}$	$1.40 \times 10^{-08}$	<i>PSORS1C1</i>
rs2248462	6	31554775	A	G	31.4	24.2	25.8	$5.61 \times 10^{-04}$	$3.61 \times 10^{-06}$	$4.26 \times 10^{-06}$	Intergenic, <i>MICB</i>
rs2516509	6	31557973	G	A	31.1	24.1	25.4	$6.56 \times 10^{-04}$	$3.61 \times 10^{-06}$	$4.95 \times 10^{-06}$	Intergenic
rs10484554	6	31382534	T	C	18.3	13.3	11.1	$3.78 \times 10^{-03}$	$8.06 \times 10^{-07}$	$6.27 \times 10^{-06}$	Intergenic, <i>HLA-C</i>
rs3815087	6	31201566	T	C	27.5	20.9	19.8	$1.04 \times 10^{-03}$	$7.09 \times 10^{-06}$	$1.46 \times 10^{-07}$	<i>PSORS1C1</i> , intergenic

**NOTE.** This table presents the  $P$  values obtained by the classical Fisher method that met the Bonferroni threshold. For each SNP, the chromosome (Chr), the chromosome position, the allelic frequencies in the various populations (nonprogressors [NP], control subjects [CTR], and seropositive control population [SCP]), the  $P$  values obtained in each study, and the combined  $P$  value are shown. The seropositive control population is a group of 86 HIV-1-seropositive patients who are not nonprogressors and allows genetic associations with nonprogression to be distinguished from associations with HIV-1 infection. The gene or genes corresponding to the SNP or SNPs in linkage disequilibrium (LD;  $r^2 \geq 0.8$  for HapMap data on white individuals) are also informed. A SNP was assigned to a gene if it was located in the gene or in the 2-kb flanking regions (potential regulatory sequence).



modulator essential for the development of lymphoid, dendritic, and natural killer cells [19]. TNF is a key proinflammatory cytokine that has been widely investigated in HIV-1 infection [20]. From a biological standpoint, all these genes are critical for immunity and, as such, are good candidates to intervene in the pathogenesis of HIV-1 infection. Indeed, they have all been associated with various immune-related diseases [21–24]. Overall, the complex genetic pattern of this region makes it difficult to discriminate between a specific signal alone or one in combination (i.e., haplotypes): as shown in figure 3 and table 3, several SNPs or haplotypes in the genes *HLA-B*, *MICB*, *BAT1*, *LTB*, *TNF*, and *MCCD1* are in high or full linkage disequilibrium with *HCP5* rs2395029.

To complete our analysis of the *HCP5* SNP association, we explored the influence of covariables, such as *CCR5-Δ32* and *CCR5-P1* haplotypes [5], the HIV-1 infection mode (mucosal or parenteral), and sex. No effect was observed except for a sex influence: the rs2395029-G frequency was 4.05% in nonprogressor women versus 10.70% in nonprogressor men ( $P = 1.71 \times 10^{-2}$ ), whereas, in control subjects, the frequency was close to 3% in men and in women (table 4). Such interaction between genetic factors and sex have been previously described for both HLA and non-HLA genetic associations with other pathologies [25]. The lack of association for *HCP5* in women requires confirmation in



**Figure 4.** Correlation between genotypes and viral load. The box plots represent the viral load at inclusion of nonprogressor subjects carrying various *HCP5* and *ZNRD1* genotypes and were compared using Student's *t* test. A significantly lower viral load was found in the nonprogressor subjects carrying the *HCP5* rs2395029-GT genotype, compared with that in the ones with *HCP5* rs2395029-TT. No significant difference was observed between *ZNRD1* rs8321 genotypes (TT vs. dominant G [domG]) or for genotypes of *ZNRD1* (rs9261290, rs1245371, and rs259940; data not shown). rs8321 and rs9261290 were identified by our combined analysis with the Euro-CHAVI study, and rs1245371 and rs259940 were identified by our analysis of *HCP5*-independent signals. VL, viral load.

The figure is available in its entirety in the online edition of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.

**Figure 5.** Linkage disequilibrium map presenting single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) of the chromosome 6 HLA locus exhibiting strong *P* values in the meta-analysis of the GRIV and Euro-CHAVI studies.

a cohort containing a sufficiently large number of women, because the alleles of interest have a frequency of only 3%.

The data from the sole AIDS GWAS of the Euro-CHAVI cohort published to date were available [3], and thus we performed a meta-analysis by combining their *P* values with ours using the classical Fisher method (see Methods). Figure 2B presents the distribution of the combined *P* values along the autosomes and several associations surpassing the Bonferroni threshold were found, all located on chromosome 6 (table 5) (see table 6 for an extended list of *P* values).

As expected, the strongest signal was obtained for the *HCP5* rs2395029 SNP ( $P_{\text{combined}} = 3.02 \times 10^{-19}$ ). The second strongest association was obtained for the *C6orf48* rs9368699 SNP ( $P_{\text{combined}} = 1.84 \times 10^{-11}$ ), which was in linkage disequilibrium with *HCP5* rs2395029 ( $r^2 = 0.68$ ) and with several SNPs located in *HLA* genes, such as *TNXB*, *BAT2*, *BAT3*, and *RDBP*, suggesting a wide range of possible biological effects that could explain this association. For instance, tenascin XB (*TNXB*) is an extracellular matrix protein previously associated with systemic lupus erythematosus [26], *HLA-B*-associated transcript (*BAT*) 2 is a potential splicing factor previously associated with rheumatoid arthritis [27], *BAT3* is an essential regulator of apoptosis and p53-mediated responses to genotoxic stress [28], and *RDBP* encodes a subunit of the negative elongation factor complex known to repress HIV-1 transcription elongation driven by Tat [29]. Then, the *PSORS1C1* gene exhibited 2 significant SNPs, rs3823418 and rs3815087 ( $P_{\text{combined}} = 1.4 \times 10^{-8}$  and  $P_{\text{combined}} = 1.46 \times 10^{-7}$ , respectively), in partial linkage disequilibrium with each other ( $r^2 = 0.66$  for HapMap data on white individuals). *PSORS1C1* is a psoriasis-susceptibility candidate gene [30]. The intergenic SNP rs2248462, which could not be assigned to a specific gene, exhibited a strong association ( $P_{\text{combined}} = 4.26 \times 10^{-8}$ ) that could be explained by the linkage disequilibrium with the *MICB* gene discussed above. Finally, the combined analysis underlined the *HLA-C*-related SNP rs10484554 ( $P_{\text{combined}} = 6.27 \times 10^{-8}$ ), which was also identified in the GWAS of psoriasis and psoriatic arthritis [16] (see table 2). This gene was widely discussed in the Euro-CHAVI GWAS for the association found with the rs9264942 SNP, which is unfortunately not present in the Illumina HumanHap300 BeadChip [3]. The sex dependence was still observed for the *C6orf48* rs9368699 SNP but not for the following SNPs (table 4).

The inclusion criteria for the Euro-CHAVI study were based on viral load during the asymptomatic set point period of infection, and for the GRIV study they were based on maintenance of CD4 T cell counts over time. The individuals with a low viral

load after infection are likely to be the ones with a stable high CD4 T cell count. Indeed, we found that, in the nonprogressors carrying the *HCP5* rs2395029-G allele, viral load was significantly lower ( $P = 5.6 \times 10^{-3}$ ) than in the other nonprogressors (figure 4). It is thus not surprising to identify common genetic signals between these 2 studies, even though these cohorts were assembled independently. Notably, of the 50 best signals found in this meta-analysis, 46 originated from the HLA locus, emphasizing the massive role played by HLA in the nonprogression phenotype (table 6). The presence of these strong associations is a cross-validation of both cohorts and also emphasizes that the HLA locus is critical for the early control of HIV-1 replication and disease nonprogression. Reciprocally, in our GWAS alone, 31 of the 50 best signals were not from chromosome 6 (table 1) and were not found in the meta-analysis (table 6), suggesting that positive signals outside the HLA locus may be associated with the nonprogression phenotype without influencing viral load. This observation is in line with findings from a recent study by Mellors et al. [31], which showed that the viral load was predictive at a 34% level for the time to reach a CD4 T cell count  $<200$  cells/mm<sup>3</sup>.

Because the *HCP5* rs2395029-G allele was present in only 17.8% of the nonprogressor subjects, we reanalyzed the data in the nonprogressor and control individuals not carrying that allele in order to identify *HCP5*-independent signals. Dramatically, most of the signals from chromosome 6 disappeared because of the genetic linkage with the *HCP5* rs2395029-G. However, the strongest signals were still found in the HLA region, with 2 SNPs of the *ZNRD1/RNF39* region, rs1245371 and rs259940 ( $P = 9.21 \times 10^{-7}$  and  $P = 2.04 \times 10^{-6}$ ), in linkage disequilibrium. These 2 SNPs are genetically independent from the *HCP5* SNP ( $r^2 = 0.06$ ) (figure 5). Interestingly, the *ZNRD1/RNF39* locus was also identified by our meta-analysis (for rs8321,  $P = 4.66 \times 10^{-7}$ ; for rs9261290,  $P = 5.11 \times 10^{-7}$ ) (table 6) and by the Euro-CHAVI study (for rs3869068,  $P = 3.89 \times 10^{-7}$ ) with the progression-to-AIDS end point (defined as the time elapsed until treatment initiation or until reaching a CD4 T cell count  $<350$  cells/mm<sup>3</sup>). Unlike the *HCP5* rs2395029 SNP, none of the *ZNRD1/RNF39* SNPs alleles seemed to correlate with viral load (figure 4), suggesting that this locus influences disease progression. Functionally, the Genevar expression database identified an association between several *ZNRD1/RNF39* alleles and the differential expression of *ZNRD1* (table 2). Finally, we found that a recent genomewide RNA interference study identified zinc ribbon domain containing (*ZNRD*) 1 among the 273 proteins required for HIV-1 infection and replication [32], suggesting that this RNA polymerase I subunit is an active component in the *ZNRD1/RNF39* region.

In conclusion, the major novelty of the present GWAS of AIDS was the investigation of a cohort with the extreme HIV-1 nonprogression phenotype, in contrast to the usual seroconverter cohorts. We replicated the major role played by the *HCP5*

gene of the HLA region in chromosome 6 previously reported in the Euro-CHAVI GWAS [3], a role that could be explained by linkage disequilibrium with other major genes of the HLA locus, such as *HLA-B*, *MICB*, *TNF*, *LTB*, and *BAT1*. The sex dependence of the *HCP5* SNP in our work is striking because it is in high linkage disequilibrium with *HLA-B\*57*, which has been investigated for years. It was likely not observed before because most AIDS cohorts are deficient in women; however, this important observation needs confirmation. We then computed a meta-analysis with the previous GWAS and put forward new associations in the same locus: *C6orf48* (in linkage disequilibrium with *RDBP*, *TNXB*, and *BAT*), *PSORS1C1*, *MICB*, and *HLA-C*. The HLA region comes first in our AIDS-nonprogression genetic study; however, given that this region presents a complex pattern of high linkage disequilibrium and that all the genes identified display a strong relevance to immunology and AIDS, it is difficult to discriminate which one(s) is(are) the causal variant(s). More refined studies will be needed to discriminate which mechanisms and which HLA locus genes are at stake. Our study, however, has suggested an independent role for the *ZNRD1* gene in disease progression. Overall, our results underline the potential for controlling disease progression and/or viral replication by some *HLA* gene variants soon after infection. Notably, 2 major SNPs identified in our meta-analysis—*HCP5* and *HLA-C*—also had the strongest signals observed in the GWAS of psoriasis and psoriatic arthritis [16].

Because of the large amount of data generated in the present GWAS, statistical cutoffs were required to minimize false discovery, and many true positives with lower  $P$  values were likely missed but remain candidates of interest. As a reminder, allow us to state that the published  $P$  values from various cohorts for the widely recognized association between *CCR5-Δ32* and AIDS progression have all been in the range of  $1 \times 10^{-2}$  to  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  and would not be seen by the current genomewide studies. This latter observation emphasizes the need to analyze more patients and perform more meta-analyses to extract additional signals from the large pool of genes screened.

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# Genomewide Association Study of a Rapid Progression Cohort Identifies New Susceptibility Alleles for AIDS (ANRS Genomewide Association Study 03)

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**Background.** Previous genomewide association studies (GWASs) of AIDS have targeted end points based on the control of viral load and disease nonprogression. The discovery of genetic factors that predispose individuals to rapid progression to AIDS should also reveal new insights into the molecular etiology of the pathology.

**Methods.** We undertook a case-control GWAS of a unique cohort of 85 human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1)-infected patients who experienced rapid disease progression, using Illumina HumanHap300 BeadChips. The case group was compared with a control group of 1352 individuals for the 291,119 autosomal single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) passing the quality control tests, using the false-discovery rate (FDR) statistical method for multitest correction.

**Results.** Novel associations with rapid progression (FDR,  $\leq 25\%$ ) were identified for *PRMT6* ( $P = 6.1 \times 10^{-7}$ ; odds ratio [OR], 0.24), *SOX5* ( $P = 1.8 \times 10^{-6}$ ; OR, 0.45), *RXRG* ( $P = 3.9 \times 10^{-6}$ ; OR, 3.29), and *TGFBRAP1* ( $P = 7 \times 10^{-6}$ ; OR, 0.34). The haplotype analysis identified exonic and promoter SNPs potentially important for *PRMT6* and *TGFBRAP1* function.

**Conclusions.** The statistical and biological relevance of these associations and their high ORs underscore the power of extreme phenotypes for GWASs, even with a modest sample size. These genetic results emphasize the role of the transforming growth factor  $\beta$  pathway in the pathogenesis of HIV-1 disease. Finally, the wealth of information provided by this study should help unravel new diagnostic and therapeutic targets.

Genomewide association studies (GWASs) may provide new insights into the molecular etiology of complex diseases by discovering unsuspected genetic risk factors

and, as a consequence, identify new diagnostic or therapeutic targets [1]. Reports of 3 GWASs of AIDS have already been published [2–4] and described mainly

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genes involved in the control of viral load. Indeed, these 3 GWASs identified the *HCP5* rs2395029 polymorphism, which is in linkage disequilibrium with HLA-B\*57 and other immunity genes, such as *MICB*, *TNF*, *LTB*, *BAT1*, and *HLA-C*. An association with the HIV DNA level (reservoir) was also depicted by the PRIMO GWAS [2] for *SDC2* (chromosome 8), whose encoded protein is required for Tat internalization. Finally, the *ZNRD1* locus of chromosome 6 was associated with the control of disease progression but not of viral load in both the Euro-CHAVI (Center for HIV/AIDS Vaccine Immunology/Center for HIV/AIDS Vaccine Immunology) [3] and the nonprogressor Genomics of Resistance to Immuno-deficiency Virus (GRIV) [4] GWASs.

To identify genetic loci predisposing a person to rapid progression of AIDS rather than disease control, we undertook a case-control GWAS involving a unique cohort of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1)-infected patients who experienced rapid progression, using Illumina HumanHap300 BeadChips. In a manner symmetric to the published nonprogressor GRIV GWAS [4], the use of this extreme phenotype should lead to an enrichment of our knowledge of the genetic factors involved in rapid disease progression. The power of this extreme design has indeed been demonstrated by previous candidate gene studies [5–7].

## METHODS

**The GRIV cohort.** The GRIV cohort was established in France in 1995 to generate a large collection of DNA for genetic studies to identify host genes associated with either rapid progression or nonprogression to AIDS [5, 7]. Only white people of European descent living in France were eligible for enrollment to reduce confounding by population substructure. These criteria limit the influence of ethnic and environmental factors (all subjects live in a similar environment and are infected by B strains) and emphasize how the genetic makeup of each individual determines the various patterns of progression. Rapid progressors were included on the basis of the main clinical outcomes, CD4 T cell count and time to disease progression, and were defined as those who had 2 or more CD4 T cell counts below 300 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> within 3 years after the last seronegative test result. DNA was obtained from fresh peripheral blood mononuclear cells or from Epstein-Barr virus-transformed cell lines. The rapid progression group ( $n = 85$ ) was composed of 73 men and 12 women aged 21–55 years (median, 32 years) at inclusion. At inclusion, the median CD4 T cell count was 230 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> (minimum and maximum values, 20 and 297 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>). All patients provided written informed consent before enrollment in the GRIV GWAS.

**The seropositive control population.** To discriminate between positive signals corresponding to either an association with rapid progression or an association with HIV-1 infection,

we needed a group of seropositive control subjects who were not rapid progressors. For that, we used 275 white French subjects who qualified as nonprogressors to AIDS (ie, those who had an asymptomatic HIV-1 infection for >8 years, no receipt of treatment, and a CD4 T cell count consistently remaining at >500 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>). This control group was composed of 201 men and 74 women aged 19–62 years (median, 35 years) at inclusion. The median CD4 T cell count of this seropositive control population was 706 cells/mm<sup>3</sup> (minimum and maximum values, 501 and 2298 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>).

**The SU.VI.MAX seronegative control group.** The SU.VI.MAX (Supplémentation en Vitamines et Minéraux Antioxydants) study was a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, primary-prevention trial designed to test the efficacy of daily supplements of antioxidant vitamins and minerals at nutrition-level doses in reducing several major health problems in industrialized countries, especially the main causes of premature death, cancers and cardiovascular diseases. This cohort study was started in 1994 in France and included 12,735 subjects [8]. The control group genotyped in the present study comprised 1352 representative SU.VI.MAX participants, all of them white persons living in France who were HIV-1 seronegative. This control cohort was composed of 525 men and 827 women, with a mean age of 53.1 and 48.5 years, respectively.

**The second seronegative control group.** The D.E.S.I.R. (Data from an Epidemiological Study on Insulin Resistance Syndrome) program was a 9-year follow-up study designed to clarify the development of insulin resistance syndrome. Subjects were recruited from 1994 to 1996 from volunteers insured by the French social security system, which offers periodic health examinations free of charge [9]. This second control group comprised 697 participants who were both not obese and normoglycemic from the D.E.S.I.R. trial, all French and HIV-1 seronegative. It was composed of 281 men and 416 women aged 30–64 years.

**Genotyping method.** The GRIV cohort and the 2 seronegative groups were genotyped using Illumina Infinium II HumanHap300 BeadChips (Illumina). Genomic DNA (750 ng) was whole-genome amplified, fragmented, denatured, and hybridized on prepared HumanHap300 BeadChips for a minimum of 16 h at 48°C. Non-specifically hybridized fragments were removed by washing, and the remaining specifically hybridized DNA was fluorescently labeled by a single base extension reaction and detected using a BeadArray scanner (Illumina). Normalized bead-intensity data obtained for each sample were loaded into BeadStudio software (version 3.1; Illumina), which converted fluorescence intensities into single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) genotypes.

**Quality control.** Using the BeadStudio software, we analyzed the crude genotyping data, and SNPs were filtered according to the following parameters. First, samples with a call



**Table 1. Best Results Obtained for the Comparison between Rapid Progressors and Control Subjects**

SNP	Gene	Chr	Chr position	Allelic frequency (A1), %		Allelic frequency (A1), %					Fisher P Value, RP-CTR <sub>SU.VI.MAX</sub>	FDR q value
						RP	CTR <sub>SU.VI.MAX</sub>	CTR <sub>D.E.S.I.R.</sub>	SCP	OR (95% CI)		
rs4118325	Intergenic <sup>a</sup>	1	107379355	A	G	5.2	19.0	18.7	15.8	0.24 (0.12–0.46)	6.09 × 10 <sup>-7</sup>	0.17
rs1522232	SOX5	12	24285639	T	C	29.1	47.7	48.2	50.7	0.45 (0.32–0.63)	1.80 × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	0.20
rs1360517	Intergenic	9	12997129	A	G	16.3	5.9	7.0	5.8	3.09 (2.00–4.78)	3.27 × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	0.20
rs3108919	Intergenic	8	101910722	C	T	43.6	26.6	27.8	27.5	2.13 (1.56–2.91)	3.86 × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	0.20
rs10800098	RXRG	1	163675719	A	G	14.5	4.9	4.7	5.6	3.29 (2.08–5.20)	3.86 × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	0.20
rs10494056	Intergenic <sup>b</sup>	1	107349442	A	C	5.8	18.6	17.9	16.1	0.27 (0.14–0.52)	4.29 × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	0.20
rs12351740	Intergenic <sup>c</sup>	9	13010010	T	C	12.8	4.1	4.7	3.8	3.46 (2.12–5.62)	6.63 × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	0.25
rs1020064	TGFBRAP1 <sup>d</sup>	2	105264172	T	G	9.3	23.2	25.6	25.2	0.34 (0.20–0.57)	7.04 × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	0.25

**NOTE.** *P* values were computed by the Fisher exact test in the allelic frequency mode and are presented with their corresponding allelic frequencies in the various populations (rapid progressors [RP], seronegative control subjects [CTR<sub>SU.VI.MAX</sub>], and the seropositive control population [SCP]), chromosome (Chr) positions, odds ratios (ORs) with 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs), and false-discovery rate (FDR) *q* values. The frequencies in the D.E.S.I.R. second seronegative control group (CTR<sub>D.E.S.I.R.</sub>) are also indicated and are similar to those in the SU.VI.MAX cohort. SNP, single-nucleotide polymorphism.

<sup>a</sup> This intergenic SNP is in linkage disequilibrium with *PRMT6* and intergenic SNPs.

<sup>b</sup> This intergenic SNP is in linkage disequilibrium with *PRMT6* and intergenic SNPs ( $r^2 = 0.92$  with rs4118325).

<sup>c</sup> This intergenic SNP is in partial linkage disequilibrium with the intergenic SNP rs1360517 ( $r^2 = 0.68$ ).

<sup>d</sup> This *TGFBRAP1* SNP is in linkage disequilibrium with an intergenic SNP.

rate (percentage of SNPs genotyped by sample) <95% in the Illumina clusters were deleted. Second, the SNPs with a call frequency (percentage of samples genotyped by SNP) <99% were reclustered. Third, after reclustered, samples with a call rate below 97% were deleted. The clustering step can create SNP genotyping errors, which can be prevented by following the Illumina procedure (see [http://www.illumina.com/downloads/GTDataAnalysis\\_TechNote.pdf](http://www.illumina.com/downloads/GTDataAnalysis_TechNote.pdf)). This method evaluates the quality of the newly created clusters according to several criteria, which can be manually checked and corrected as necessary. In total, 1300 SNPs were excluded by this Illumina quality control procedure. Finally, after all the quality control steps were performed, the 15,731 SNPs with a call frequency <98% (>2% of missing data) were excluded. This procedure ensures reliable genotyping data with little missing data.

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium analysis was performed for each SNP in each group by using an exact statistical test implemented in PLINK software ([10]; available at: <http://pngu.mgh.harvard.edu/~purcell/plink/>). Deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in a group of patients suggests that the SNP has a biological effect, while deviation in the control group or all groups suggests a systematic error in genotyping. The 1475 SNPs that were not in the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in the SU.VI.MAX control group ( $P < 1.0 \times 10^{-3}$ ) were rejected in this way.

In total, 235 SNPs with low minor allelic frequency (<1%) in the global population were also filtered.

**Haplotype inference.** Haplotype inference was obtained using the rapid and accurate Shape-IT algorithm [11].

**Linkage disequilibrium.** For each SNP exhibiting a significant association, we looked for the other SNPs in linkage disequilibrium ( $r^2 \geq 0.8$ ) in the HapMap population of Western

European ancestry (CEU, HapMap data Release 21a/phase II, January 2007, on NCBI B35 assembly, dbSNP125; available at <http://www.hapmap.org>) to identify the genes possibly concerned by the associations. A SNP was assigned to a gene if it was located in the gene or in the 2 kb flanking regions (potential regulatory sequence); otherwise, it was considered intergenic.

**Statistical analysis.** For each SNP, we performed a standard case-control analysis by using the Fisher exact test (with PLINK software) to compare allelic distributions between the rapid progressors and the control subjects.

To take into account the multiple tests while controlling for the risk of false discovery, we computed for each *P* value a false-discovery rate (FDR) under the form of a *q* value: the *q* value is an estimate of the proportion of false-positive signals below a threshold *P* value [12]. The FDR computation is more complex but more powerful than the standard Bonferroni corrections [13–15], because it allows the identification of more true-positive signals. For polyfactorial diseases in which several genes are at stake, it thus provides a more adapted outlook on the GWAS results than the “all or nothing” Bonferroni cutoff. We thus used an FDR approach called local base estimating, with a 25% threshold for our case-control study.

For all the SNPs meeting this statistical threshold (Table 1), the quality of genotyping was individually rechecked with the BeadStudio software. We also checked that the allelic frequen-

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**Figure 1.** Number of independent ( $r^2 < 0.5$ ) single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) meeting the false-discovery rate threshold of 25%.

This figure is available in its entirety in the online version of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.

**Figure 2.** Quantile-quantile plot for expected (*red*) versus observed (*black*)  $P$  values from the comparison of rapid progressors with control subjects.

cies in the seropositive control population were similar to those in the seronegative SU.VI.MAX control population for those SNPs of interest, confirming that the observed associations were indeed linked to rapid progression.

**Statistical reliability of the rapid progression results.** The GRIV rapid progression cohort is unique, and no other independent cohort was readily available for replication. To check in an independent fashion the statistical relevance of the associations with rapid progression, we decided to evaluate the odds of obtaining just as many associations with the same statistical method (ie, the Fisher exact test and FDR cutoff) by comparing the genotypes of 1000 control subgroups (randomly extracted from the D.E.S.I.R. control cohort and composed of 85 subjects each) with the genotypes of the entire SU.VI.MAX control group. For each simulation, we counted the number of independent ( $r^2 < 0.5$ ) SNPs meeting the statistical threshold of an FDR of 25% (Figure 1).

**Identification of population stratification.** To correct for possible population stratification at the intercontinental level, case and control genotypes were analyzed using STRUCTURE software (version 2.2; see [16] and <http://pritch.bsd.uchicago.edu/software.html>). We selected a set of 328 SNPs informative for ancestral origin ( $F$  statistics fixation index,  $>0.2$ ) based on the Perlegen data set and separated by 5 Mb to avoid linkage disequilibrium. We also included genotypes obtained from unrelated individuals representing the 3 populations studied by the HapMap project to better separate our rapid progressors

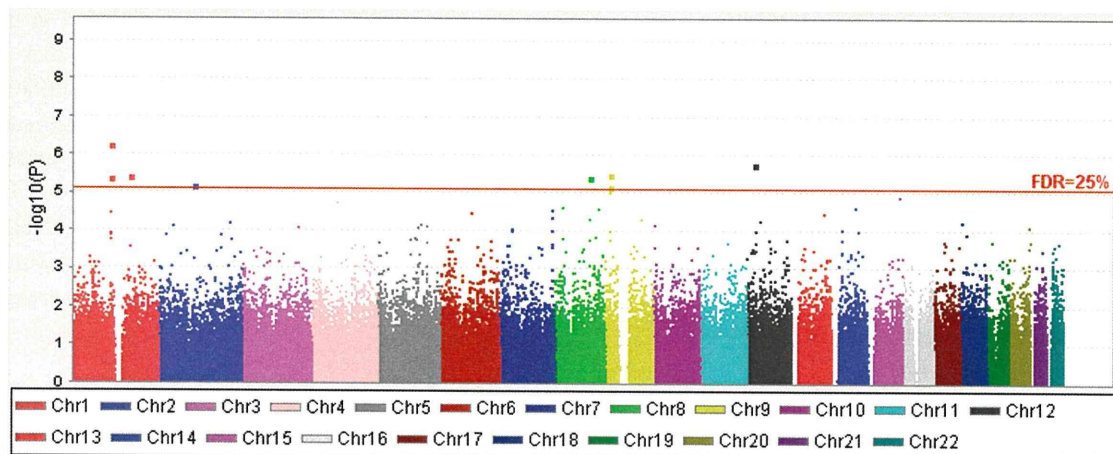
and control individuals according to their continent of origin. While nearly all case and control subjects were within the range of the white individuals from HapMap, one individual was outside the white subjects cluster in the rapid progressors (decreasing the rapid progression group from 86 to 85 subjects).

To avoid spurious associations resulting from possible population stratification or genotyping errors, a quantile-quantile plot was also produced by plotting the ranked values of the test statistics against the approximated expected order statistic (Figure 2). We also computed the genomic inflation factor  $\lambda$  [17]. The result ( $\lambda = 1.038$ ), along with the quantile-quantile plot, suggested little overall effect of stratification.

## RESULTS

After the quality control tests, a total of 291,119 autosomal SNPs were tested for association with rapid progression. Figure 3 depicts the distribution of the  $P$  values along the chromosomes, and Table 1 presents the best signals (for an extended list, see Table 2). Eight associations with FDRs  $\leq 25\%$  were identified, corresponding to 6 independent ( $r^2 < 0.5$ ) SNPs. Since no replication was readily available, we performed simulations on independent control populations to evaluate the reliability of these results (see Methods and Figure 1). Overall, less than 1% of these tests yielded 6 or more independent signals with a FDR  $\leq 25\%$  (mean  $\pm$  standard deviation =  $0.4 \pm 1.29$ ), suggesting that most of the rapid progression associations found in this study are likely to be true positives. This result underscores the statistical relevance of the rapid progression associations, even with a modest sample size.

The best rapid progression signals were observed for SNPs on chromosome 1 (rs4118325 [ $P = 6.09 \times 10^{-7}$ ] and rs10494056 [ $P = 4.29 \times 10^{-6}$ ]) (Figure 3), which are in linkage disequilibrium themselves ( $r^2 = 0.92$ ) and are also in linkage disequilibrium with SNPs of the *PRMT6* gene. The rs4118325-A allele



**Figure 3.** Distributions along the human autosomes of  $-\log_{10}(P)$  values obtained for the comparison of rapid progressors with control subjects. The red line marks the false-discovery rate threshold of 25%. Chr, chromosome.